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ABSTRACT

The community college has become the institution of higher education which implements the American "open class" ideology, providing an opportunity for students to learn and advance themselves socially and occupationally. Evaluative research concerning compensatory education programs in the community college indicates that such programs have not been highly successful in welcoming and encouraging those who have a history of failure in traditional schools. Most such programs have dealt solely with erasing cognitive deficiencies, but an effective program must address the affective domain as well. By emphasizing the development of small, cohesive learning groups which have norms of communication and support, and which are open to the distribution of authority and the shared responsibility for learning, the interactionist approach addresses both cognitive and affective domains. A general theoretical rationale is presented for establishing an interactionist compensatory educational program, by reviewing current programs, and examining the relationship between various affective components and academic performance. Then, a model program is presented, including a step-by-step group development and skill-building design tested and refined in community colleges. A bibliography is appended. (NHM)

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COMPENSATORY EDUCATION IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE: AN INTERACTIONIST APPROACH

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COMPENSATORY EDUCATION IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE: AN INTERACTIONIST APPROACH

INTRODUCTION

Many educators view the community college as an innovative, nontraditional institution which expands limited opportunities for upward mobility within American society. Indeed, it has been argued elsewhere that the major explanation for the rapid growth of the community college is that it is responding to the same societal pressures to open channels of social mobility to which the secondary school responded earlier in this century (Morrison, 1974). Like the high school, which initially was quite academic and selective, the model community college has developed into a comprehensive institution with an open admissions policy and extensive guidance and counseling facilities. It now contains programs of developmental, general, and technical-vocational education as well as the original academic transfer program. The community college, therefore, has become the institution of higher education which operationalizes the American "open-class" ideology and provides the perception that all who enter can learn and advance themselves socially and occupationally.

The problem, of course, is in providing substance to this perception. Welcoming and encouraging late adolescents and others who have a history of failure in traditional schools poses difficult and complex tasks for community colleges. These institutions generally have responded to this challenge by initiating programs of compensatory education (Morrison and Ferrante, 1973). Unfortunately, evaluative research concerning such programs has indicated that they have not been highly successful (Roueche and Kirk, 1973).

We believe that one of the major reasons these programs have not fully met the expectations held for them is their unidimensional focus on cognitive needs. We maintain that both cognitive and affective components must be recognized when developing programs of compensatory education. Since most programs have dealt solely with erasing cognitive deficiencies, our focus is on developing a comprehensive plan which addresses the affective domain.

As our title suggests, the underlying rationale of our approach is derived from an interactionist perspective. In essence, this perspective holds that socialization generally occurs within a small group setting in which there is emotional support and where communication is deep and extensive. Therefore, this approach emphasizes the development of cohesive groups which have norms of communication and support and which are open to the distribution of authority and the shared responsibility for learning. The pursuit of learning is the goal of all; everyone is a researcher, an experimentalist. Authority, then, is based not in any one member, but in the group.

This monograph consists of two parts. Part One advances a general theoretical rationale for establishing a program based on developing cohesive groups and using these groups as an instructional medium. First, we describe the culturally different student and review the nature and success of current programs of compensatory education. Then we examine the relationship between various affective components and academic performance. An analysis of intentional socialization is followed by a look at the basic assumptions and techniques of group process.

In Part Two we present a compensatory education program which implements our theoretical views. At the heart of this section is a step-by-step group development and skill-building design tested and refined in community colleges. The role of faculty members in developing the groups and their subsequent relationships with the groups are also discussed, and specific suggestions are given for faculty inservice education.

We believe that the interactionist approach, coupled with an institution's existing efforts in remedial education, will enable greater success in developing compensatory education programs for culturally different students.

PART ONE: THE RATIONALE

Compensatory Education: Review and Evaluation

A great deal of literature has been devoted to describing the characteristics of those individuals who, for a number of reasons, qualify for programs of compensatory education. Kneller (1965, p. 147), for example, gives the following portrayal of the culturally disadvantaged:

> They are generally from the lower classes and are academically backward, the second characteristic being generally, though not always, a consequence of the first. Their parents have been unable to give them the background and preparation necessary for formal learning, which the middle-class parent imparts to his child as a matter of course. Since their parents often do work which requires little education, the children usually underestimate the school's capacity to prepare them for life. Coming as they do from depressed areas and often from broken homes, they have little feeling that society as a whole cares for them....they tend to be more aggressive and insecure than other children.... Many, many drop out of school, and few find their way to college. They are further set back by their tendency to move from one neighborhood and school to another, disturbing their own education.

We concur with those social scientists who maintain that occupational success, upward mobility patterns, and achievement in school depend largely upon the internalization of norms and values which are concomitant with those stressed by the larger society. For example, success in middle-class schools and society often depends on having a strong desire for achieving the goals of the school and society (achievement motivation), the ability to defer gratification, and the willingness to accept traditional modes of authority. Thus, the "disadvantaged" can be viewed as individuals who have been socialized into a set of attitudes, values, and norms which inhibits their educational achievement and impedes subsequent occupational mobility.

Although most programs of compensatory education recognize the importance of attitudes and values, they have neglected to programmatically address these issues. We believe, therefore, that a successful program for culturally different students must focus on the affective domain, especially on the process of intentional socialization.

The term "culturally different" is often used in place of "disadvantaged" because it describes the reality of socialization into attitudes,

values, and behaviors characteristic of a particular subculture or social class without appearing to be a negative description of that class. Therefore, in this paper we use the term "culturally different" instead of the term "disadvantaged."

Programs of compensatory education can be viewed as vehicles of social action designed "to compensate--to make up for some putative deficiences in a person's learning experience" (McDill, McDill, and Sprehe, 1972, p. 142). Although such programs have become widespread in higher education (Egerton, 1968; Gordon and Wilkerson, 1966; Bynum, Gordon, Gerrahan, and Lewis, 1972), they still are far from meeting the needs of the culturally different. For example, Morrison and Ferrante (1973), in a 1970 survey of a nationwide sample of two-year colleges, found that 98 percent of the community colleges had open door admission policies, but only 40 percent were providing specially designed curricula for disadvantaged students. In a similar vein, Berg and Axtell (1968) report that while slightly over 50 percent of the California community colleges in their 1968 study attempted to provide some form of compensatory education, only about 25 percent had actually implemented special instructional programs.

In addition to their insufficient numbers, current programs seem to have missed their targets. Williams (1968) notes, for example, that standardized test scores obtained by high-risk students have not been appreciably altered by compensatory assistance. Bossone (1966) found that 40 to 60 percent of those enrolled in remedial English classes in California community colleges received a grade of D or F. Only 20 percent of these students later enrolled in college credit courses. Bynum and others (1972), while acknowledging that there has been little systematic evaluation of compensatory programs, generally conclude that remedial courses are insufficient to assure success of marginal students.

Numerous explanations have been advanced for this lack of success. Roueche (1967) claims that the failure of remedial programs at the community college level is due to vague and uncertain program objectives. According to Monroe (1972, p. 109), programs have failed because many community college faculty and staff members have negative attitudes toward them. Suchman (1969) maintains that researchers are not able to evaluate

the effectiveness of such programs since there are no reliable test and measurement devices.

Most measures consider only the dimension of cognitive functioning as reflected in intelligence test scores. Yet the social experiences of minority group children may be so different from those of other students that it is inappropriate to use the same measuring devices and to apply the same norms to an assessment of their performance (Wilkerson, 1970). McDill and others (1972) suggest that the lack of adequate affective tests has given rise to preoccupation with cognitive measures, which has resulted in a limited focus. They conclude that the failure to measure affective changes has resulted in an inadequate assessment of the effectiveness of compensatory education programs.

We contend that some of these explanations skirt the major issue. Whatever measures of affective change are developed, the raison d'être of any program of compensatory education is cognitive development. However, our point is that the acquisition of cognitive skills depends on development in the affective domain. This view is supported by Bynum and others (1972).

The purpose of this paper therefore, is to create a program of compensatory education that focuses on those affective elements connected with successful academic achievement. In addition, we maintain that the development of both affective and cognitive elements depends on students' having a continuing peer support base which (1) encourages them to take risks in an environment previously perceived to be threatening, (2) reinforces and thereby serves as a source of nurture and heightened aspirations for academic achievement, providing value for such efforts, and (3) gives assistance in learning efforts. The following sections present the theoretical rationale for such a program.

Affective Components of Academic Achievement

Our earlier definition of culturally different students stressed that they have acquired certain behavioral and attitudinal patterns which are not supported by the middle-class culture of the school and which impede academic achievement. Part of the task of a good compensatory program, therefore, is to socialize these students into those values and behaviors which will facilitate their success in the dominant society. Much of the literature supports this contention, as it demonstrates relationships among attitudes toward education, self-concept, achievement motivation, educational aspirations, and academic performance.

A number of studies have shown, for example, that the value structure of the lower classes is not conducive to successful academic performance. Gottlieb and Ramsey (1967) depict the lower classes as having a high need for immediate gratification which obstructs their view of the ultimate value of an education. They tend to ignore traditional middle-class values, such as achievement, hard work, efficiency, and practicality, which ensure successful school performance. Stevenson (1972) suggests that the lower classes generally (1) fail to recognize the importance of education, (2) lack respect for authority figures, and (3) are unable to postpone immediate satisfaction for ultimate gain. K. R. Johnson (1970) notes that lower-class children have negative attitudes toward intellectual tasks because they do not see the application of such skills within their own environment.

Riessman (1967), however, postulates that these students do value education but dislike school. This attitude arises from their resentment or hostility toward the teacher. Thus the traditional authoritarian relationship between student and teacher, which is often characterized by tension and conflict (Waller, 1932), may inhibit the individual's internalization of attitudes and values necessary in order to achieve school objectives.

A number of recent studies show that the most powerful predictors of student achievement are the composition and climate of the student body. For example, Coleman and others (1966, p. 268) report that the "social composition of the student body is more highly related to achievement independently of the student's own social background than is any other school factor." In other words, academic achievement and educational aspirations

are regarded as highly correlated with the attitudes and aspirations of peer groups. Numerous studies (for example, Coleman, 1961; Wilson, 1959) have shown that if peer group supports the value of obtaining an education, then individual members are likely to bring their own attitudes and values into congruence with those of the group. If a member of a group refuses to realign his attitudes with those supported by the group, social pressures to conform are invariably brought to bear on the deviant member (Whyte, 1943; Sherif and Sherif, 1953).

A factor analytic study conducted by McDill, Meyers, and Rigsby (1967) found that the dimension of academic emulation (the degree to which academic excellence is valued by the student body) was the most important factor in accounting for the proportion of total variance in achievement scores. Similarly, Jencks and others (1972) conclude that the social context of the school does appear to affect the academic performance of those who are a part of it.

The research cited above supports our major contentions: that success is highly related to such affective components as values and attitudes and that changes in such predispositions may occur in a setting in which the individual's peers support the value of an education.

Closely related to the issue of differential values is the problem of "educational aspirations." Although it has frequently been asserted that lower-class children do not aspire to achieve in school or strive for high-status occupations, a substantial body of research now supports the view that the differences in academic performance between the "disadvantaged" and "advantaged" cannot be attributed solely to differences in aspirations. Both groups appear to have similar levels of aspiration but varying expectations in regard to achieving those goals. According to Hyman (1970), data show that lower-class individuals emphasize those factors which often lead them to strive for careers which are less valued within the occupational structure. Goals are set in light of realities and the situation of the culturally different demands that these goals be set relatively low.

Another variable which appears to affect school performance is referred to as fate control--the feelings individuals have in regard to controlling their own destinies. Battle and Rotter (1963) found that children

from the lower classes who experience failure in school perceive themselves to be controlled by the external environment and less capable of determining their own life situations than middle-class children. Haggstrom (1964) and Clark (1965) suggest that conditions of poverty and constant subordination (that is, minority group status) may produce a feeling of powerlessness in which the individual sees himself as incapable of controlling his own fate.

These studies of aspiration and fate control illustrate that compensatory programs must attempt to increase an individual's expectations of success by providing him with successful experiences and increased expectations so that he sees the possibility of achieving higher aspirations. Similarly, such programs must try to reinforce or build up the individual's feelings of power and self-efficacy. Once again, we believe such changes can be obtained through a process of providing emotional support and resources within the confines of a small group.

Still another important element in academic achievement is self-concept. As Mead (1934) and Cooley (1964) point out, the self is a social product developed through interacting with those "significant others" who help define for an individual a reflected picture of himself. Because he bases his view of himself on the perceptions of others (the "looking-glass self"), an individual's "academic self-concept" is primarily a product of his conceptions of how his teachers and peers view his academic abilities. The culturally different student often comes to school ill prepared to learn and teachers have lower expectations in regard to his ability to succeed. As a consequence of confirmed failures and lowered expectations, the individual incorporates a negative academic self-concept and the belief that he cannot succeed in school. We believe the small group setting is well suited to developing and strengthening positive academic self-concepts. There, individual members come to view themselves more favorably while receiving and drawing upon the support and resources of the group.

The final variable we will examine in relation to academic performance is achievement motivation, a term which refers to an individual's need to perform successfully at a high level. Although one expects achievement

motivation to be correlated with academic performance (Backman and Secord, 1968), a number of studies show that the relationship between these two variables is either low or nonexistent (Goodstein and Heilbrun, 1962; Hakel, 1966; and Holland and Richards, 1965).

How can these results which indicate little or no correlation be explained? In a 1961 factor analytic study, Mitchell found that achievement consists of a number of factors, including academic motivation and efficiency, self-satisfaction, wish-fulfillment motivation, nonacademic achievement orientation, and external pressures to achieve--many of which are not expected to correlate highly with academic performance. Another explanation arises out of John W. Atkinson's (1965) theory of achievement motivation. According to his research, an individual's tendency to achieve is equal to his motivation to achieve multiplied by his expectancy of success and by the incentives available for achievement relative to those for engaging in competing activities. That is, if any one of the three components on the righthand side of the equation equals zero, then one's tendency to achieve is equal to zero. Since lower-class individuals have lower expectations of achievement, one is likely to find that when the formula is applied to poor, culturally different students, the correlation between achievement motivation and academic performance is very low or itself equal to zero.

On the basis of Atkinson's research and theory, we conclude that any attempt to increase achievement motivation must seriously consider the variables of motivation, probability of success, and incentive. We believe that each of these factors can be enhanced within a small group setting.

A research team led by Zander (1971) uncovered a group equivalent of achievement motivation which appears to reinforce our previous point. It seems that in many settings, group members will work harder for their small group than for themselves. The key factor apparently is a strong team spirit leading to a high desire for group success among members. This desire is viewed not as a permanent trait of individuals, but as a situational motive. Characteristics of this situation are:

1. a strong sense of group cohesion or unity;
2. a high degree of shared responsibility for the group's outcomes;
3. an early demonstration of group success versus failure;

4. increased group performance and efficiency following early success;
5. collaboration or negotiation by outside authorities im setting realistic goals;
6. direct and continuing feedback about performance to the group from outside authority;
7. a tendency for members who are fearful of failure as individuals to behave as if they had high achievement motivation when feeling responsibility for a valued group;
8. a sense of a high degree of control over group destiny;
9. open channels of communication developing within the group, strengthening the group image and commitment to it; and
10. the minimization of organizational procedures and structures that emphasize and reward individual achievement at the expense of the group.

We believe that individual achievement motivation can be enhanced in a small group whose qualities resemble those described above. Furthermore, this approach reinforces our view that changes in the affectiwe domain can be operationalized in a small group from which the individual derives support.

Intentional Socialization In Groups

Much of the literature cited previously implies that if culturally different students are to achieve within the present structure of the school system, they need to reorient some of their values and attitudes concerning education, to develop positive feelings about themselves and their ability to control their own lives, and to experience some success. We propose that these aims can be accomplished through socialization in a small group.

Socialization may be viewed as a process in which various attitudes, values, beliefs, and patterns of action are internalized by the individual. Parsons (1951, p. 205) defines it as "the acquisition of the requisite orientations for satisfactory functioning in a role." As the term is generally accepted by social scientists, socialization involves a continuous shaping of the individual's behavior to coincide with group norms.

What forces bring about this process? The family, school, and peer group are influential "agents." In the family context, the child is likely to be effectively socialized by his parents because he is so "effect-dependent" (Jones and Gerard, 1967) upon adults for meeting his every need. Parents and other important figures inculcate "proper" attitudes and beliefs by applying rewards and punishments, positive and negative reinforcement. To receive the rewards of emotional security and love, children conform to the perceived expectations of their parents and avoid attitudes and behaviors which bring punishment.

Socialization within any group is quite similar to that which occurs within the family. For our purposes, intentional socialization is a means through which the values, attitudes, and prior experiences of the culturally different are supplemented and redefined so as to effect more successful academic performance. From the phenomenological perspective, this process consists of assuming the roles and attitudes of significant others--and learning the behaviors necessary to fill these roles--under highly charged emotional circumstances. The basis for change is the possibility that subjective realities, that is, individuals' beliefs about themselves and their social world, can be transformed and modified.

Two conditions are needed to accomplish this transformation. First, a legitimizing apparatus for the whole sequence of transformation must be available. That is, a person must regard the changes which occur in his subjective reality as legitimate, and this legitimacy must be given by someone or something the individual respects. Second, no radical transformation is possible without an identification with significant others who support and encourage the individual to change.

It is evident that intentional socialization must take place within a group setting in which the members play a vital role in providing the legitimacy and support the individual needs in order to change. It follows then that the small group becomes an operational vehicle whereby the individual becomes receptive to further socialization. The essential mechanisms for legitimating such changes are group norms: rules of behavior which constrain individual actions in various situations. Once internalized, norms guide expectations of acceptable behavior on the part of both self and others. Adherence to group norms assists in integrating people into the group, thereby assuring proper role performance. In addition, norm acceptance provides a common frame of reference from which behavior in the system is evaluated (Sherif, 1936; Festinger, 1950).

A number of classic experiments in the field of social psychology (Sherif, 1936; Newcomb, 1952; Coleman, 1961) and various other studies in both educational and industrial settings (Hughes, Becker, and Geer, 1962; Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939) demonstrate that group norms can be powerful predictors of behavior. Norms which emphasize achievement, high aspiration levels, positive attitudes toward education, and self-efficacy can be used to shape an individual's behavior.

Not only do groups strongly influence individual behavior, they also tend to pressure group members into behaving in ways which are consonant with group goals and norms. Conformity may be seen as a function of a number of conditions. D. W. Johnson (1970) reports on a number of principles which came out of research. First, if an individual's awareness of a particular norm is ambiguous, he is less likely to conform. Second, the group must have the

ability to ascertain whether or not its members are conforming to the norms. Thus, the greater the group's surveillance of the individual, the greater his conformity. In addition, conformity is related to the group's ability to apply meaningful sanctions. The greater the rewards for conformity and the greater the punishment for deviations, the greater the conformity will be. Finally, conformity to group norms is likely to increase when the individual is attracted to the group.

Conformity may merely represent public compliance or it may signify private commitment to the norm. If an individual privately endorses his public position, he will continue to comply with the group norm even when it comes under attack or when the group fails to maintain constant surveillance over him. According to Festinger (1953) private acceptance depends on whether or not one is attracted to the influencing others. But Kelman (1958) is not willing to accept this view because it implies that private acceptance will change if the relationships with the "others" change. Therefore he posits that only "internalization" produces true acceptance. As Kiesler and Kiesler (1969, p. 69) point out, "For internalization to occur, the content of the influence attempt--whether it be a particular norm, behavior, or opinion--must fit with the subjects' prevailing formed value."

If Kelman is correct, it will be virtually impossible to foster private acceptance of group norms which stress academic achievement and other success-related values in culturally different students, since these values do not fit in well with their value structure. We hypothesize, however, that those who apply for community college admission must value education and some of the other success-related norms necessary for achievement in a middle-class society. Though their commitment to or even awareness of such values may not be known explicitly, we suggest that they are present and thus provide the foundation upon which internalization or private acceptance of academic norms can be built.

The normative structure of any particular group may arise in several ways. Though group norms typically develop out of an interactive process, they may be initiated by an authority figure who directly prescribes the norms and instructs others to accept them.

Individuals may also learn group norms by modeling--by watching others conform and rehearsing the desired behavior. In addition norms operating in other settings and groups may be "imported" to a particular group. Norms such as social responsibility (helping those who need help), fair play (I don't kick someone when he's down), and reciprocity (you do me a favor and I'll do one for you) may be generalized to other group situations and operate with equal force and magnitude.

The most effective way to initiate group norms, according to research by D. W. Johnson (1970), Lewin (1947), and Levine and Butler (1952) is through group discussion. Members will probably become more committed to norms developed in this way than to those imposed from above. Thus, it appears that norms which are established by the group itself and which serve the purpose of reaching the group's goals are most likely to be accepted by its members and influential in guiding their behavior.

Developing Competent Groups and Appropriate Authority Relationships

The purposeful introduction of carefully developed small groups as sources of motivation, reinforcers of self-concept, and catalysts for the changing of attitudes and the adoption of norms that will foster achievement in higher education has not been pursued thoroughly until this effort. The purpose of this section is to examine the development of groups as interdependent bodies with internal, shared authority. Such groups can become competent organisms and support bases for members. As intact groups, they will move through compensatory subject areas and experience different faculty members.

In building interdependent groups, students will be forming relationships which very often are neglected in the regular college classroom and which should benefit even high-achieving students who have gone through many years of successful work in formal institutions of learning. Repeatedly, in interviews with college students, it has been found that students enter classrooms knowing few of their classmates and very rarely get to know more than a small number who sit in close proximity to them (Sekuler, 1972). This is a common complaint and an indictment of the quality of the learning communities established in our institutions of higher education.

The terms "group" and "group discussion" are used indiscriminately throughout formal education with little concern for their precise meaning. Even a cursory examination of what occurs in formal classrooms under the label of those terms indicates that in a great majority of cases the "groups" are not really groups in even an elementary sense. Nor are the discussions truly discussions. Rather, they are situations in which a professor lectures to students seated in a circle and personally responds to the great majority of statements and questions posed. Although research and theory-building on small groups is not highly sophisticated, the more than 6,000 studies since 1900 have provided a body of knowledge which can guide successful group activities at virtually every level of education. Unfortunately, relatively few instructors, especially college faculty members (Rogers, 1969), have a firm foundation in small group theory and practice.

Purposeful learning is primarily a task-oriented process. The obvious reason for undertaking it in a group is to utilize a far greater variety of cognitive resources and affective supports than would be available to an individual acting independently (Schein and Bennis, 1965). In other pursuits, when a variety of resources is brought together, some time and effort must be devoted to determining how to blend those resources into the most effective combination for achieving specified goals. Yet instructors who bring together human resources usually spend little time in determining how these students might be helped to coalesce into an effective working combination and often do not give them a testing and adaptation period before they are thrust into the stress of a group learning assignment.

To be used successfully for personal growth and for a high level of interdependent effort and outcome, including individual attitudinal and behavioral change, the group should be viewed as an organism which contains various subgroups analogous to the organs in a human body (Thelen, 1959). Those group organs are the different human resources that go together to form the group. They must be allowed time to find their own means and styles of functioning effectively in concert with the other organs. Furthermore, they must be allowed to discover how to maintain this effort throughout the life of the organism.

A number of studies have examined attempts in higher education to use the initially unstructured small group and a nondirective leadership approach to develop a sensitive and supportive group climate (Lieberman and others, 1973). Although this milieu has been shown to foster dramatic individual attitudinal and behavioral change, members are very likely to pursue highly specific individual goals (Watson, 1969) rather than goals valued by the group as a whole or the institution of higher learning. Once the group reaches a high level of interdependence, however, considerable learning of content and accomplishment of various tasks can occur, if an acceptable external source of authority can "sell" a task or learning goal through negotiation with the developed group (Watson, 1972). The group has become a source of authority capable of dealing from a posture of strength with external authority or authority figures (Bennis and Shepherd, 1964).

The groups we propose for compensatory education will be structured from the outset and will have interdependence as a goal. Also, a negotiated relationship with authority figures will be sought.

The nature and locus of authority should be given full consideration before a program of small group learning is undertaken (Mills, 1964; Peters, 1967). The literature on cultural difference and compensatory education, cited earlier, emphasizes that the students' strained relationships with established authority, as represented by the teacher or the institution are major barriers to successful programs.

It seems to be characteristic of college-age persons to protest against the imposition of faculty and/or institutional authority in the name of freedom but not be able or willing to offer an alternative source of authority.

According to Benne (1970), the proper source of educational authority is a community life in which members are seeking expanded and more realistic membership. He suggests that adults as well as youth need to be led into processes of learning and re-education. The mutual effort is to build a set of relationships whose purpose is to develop skills, knowledge, values, and commitments which will prepare the individuals for more effective and rewarding participation in a community life beyond just those immediate learning associations. Appropriate group authority develops as group members seek to help each other grow into membership in a more inclusive community.

In the small group it is quite possible for each individual to contribute to the formation of the group and the development of its norms, acting constantly to have impact in changing the group while at the same time being changed by it (DeSoto, 1960). Groups which have been composed carefully as pools of varied human resources and which have been allowed to develop skills for sharing collaboratively and for dealing with conflict creatively can expect a great deal of acceptance of fundamental norms, but tolerance of differences among members (Benne and Sheats, 1948). Indeed, it is quite typical of such groups to develop a norm of valuing differences among members and of working to make members more aware and appreciative of their own unique resources, a step toward the development of stronger individual self-concepts.

In summary, the small group is advocated as a source of strong support for self-concept and as a means of influencing members to consider the acceptance of norms for the development of attitudes and skills necessary for academic achievement. The small group also provides helping relationships for learning tasks. If, however, the group is to be utilized as an agent of individual change, it must be composed as a potentially interdependent combination of varied human resources. It must be given the time and assistance to develop skill at combining those resources in a collaborative effort which will result in maturity and confidence in the ability to survive and to be effective. Such growth toward maturity, competence, and confidence can prepare the group for dealing with one of the most salient threats to its success, relationships with authority and decisions about sources of acceptable authority. A group which is composed and allowed to develop as advocated can establish its own authority for negotiating with other authority sources which have something to offer and gain in a mutual exchange. To achieve this state, a training program for faculty and students will be required.

PART TWO: THE PROGRAM

Once the college has decided to experiment with the small group approach to compensatory education, the office of student personnel or of counseling and guidance services should be designated as the basic coordinating office for the program. This designation is appropriate because the primary objective of using groups is to provide the psychological support necessary to get students to collaborate in setting and achieving goals.

The head of the coordinating office should join with the dean of faculty or the dean of instruction in organizing and supporting this effort, since its dual focus is on affective and cognitive learning. Nevertheless, everyone should keep in mind that the establishment of affective bonds within the small group is the primary objective. The director of student personnel services or of guidance and counseling should have primary responsibility for the initial training and development of the total group component. Whoever is selected to guide the developmental process--whether the coordinating director or another faculty member, counselor, or consultant--should have the attitude of a facilitator or manager rather than a leader (Rogers, 1969). He or she should play a consultative rather than an authority-figure role. This person also should be available to work with both faculty members and student groups at any time during the program.

When the first planning stages are completed, the total faculty should be briefed thoroughly on the rationale for the program, the degree to which it will be incorporated in the institution, the commitments required, and the anticipated outcomes for all students. At this meeting, planners should try to answer questions about the program and seek suggestions for its establishment. The effort to involve all faculty members to some degree will give them a chance to participate in making decisions and thus should also help to prevent the program's being considered a separate, perhaps stigmatized operation. The small support groups advocated must be protected from the negative attitudes which "special education" students sometimes experience. In addition, the group approach--because of its potential for involving and satisfying students and because not all faculty members are able to

use the interaction approach effectively in the classroom--may threaten some faculty in the regular sequence in the college, and that possibility too should be prevented if possible. The whole faculty should also be given a written description of the project and be invited to a discussion meeting following the first trial of the program.

Suggestions from the total faculty meeting should be discussed at a follow-up meeting of all faculty members who are going to be directly associated with the compensatory education program. At this gathering, any teachers who are already competent in working with small groups should be identified. They should be asked to consider helping their colleagues develop some understanding of small group dynamics and to help plan and implement a training program.

Initial Training of Faculty

Because the concept of establishing a collaborative learning community in each classroom will not be readily and immediately understandable or even acceptable to many faculty members, a training program will be required. A session of at least three days should be devoted to small group dynamics and the role of the instructor as a consultant to the student groups. The facilitator/trainer should work diligently to help each faculty member become aware of the nature of the group and help him gain skill, as one source of authority, in negotiating with the group--another source of authority.

All compensatory education faculty should do advance reading on small group process and learn some observational skills in order, later, to diagnose the progress of the groups. As part of this training, they should observe the students' group-building sequence--described in detail later. The purpose is not to lead the groups or tell them what to do and what is wrong with them, but to find out how to make learning opportunities available and to determine when the groups are not in a satisfactory state or climate for learning. The faculty members should come to realize and appreciate the fact that groups fall into states of lethargy, depression, and illness just as individuals do, and they must be allowed to recover from such conditions without being punished or discouraged about prospects for future health and productivity.

During the final training day, participants should examine how their roles as consultants to the student groups might affect their actual behavior. Time should be devoted to role playing and simulations of their negotiations and collaborations with the groups. How can they involve these students in setting some of their own learning goals for each course and in determining what is realistic for all members of each group? How can they get students to help one another and to make certain that no student is left without assistance in progressing at a satisfactory level? What are the various means of setting up collaborative efforts that are rewarding to the helpers and encouraging and nonthreatening to those being helped within the groups? What kinds of rewards can be issued to groups that will have meaning and support value for individual members within the groups? How often should the

group stop to study its own processes, to reconsider its goals, and to give itself internal feedback on its own success in achieving them? These and other questions should be discussed.

Since the student personnel office or guidance and counseling office should provide continuing coordination of at least the early phases of the project, faculty members should decide on a plan for regular classroom visits by personnel from that office so that teachers can get feedback on how they are relating to the groups and the office representative can have an informed view of how the activity is progressing.

Student Training: Overview

Various screening procedures are used by community colleges to determine which students clearly are in need of compensatory assistance. Those students should be brought together at the beginning of the program--probably when the academic year or a term is starting. At that time, students should be clustered into "communities" on the basis of subject areas in which they need compensatory work. For example, all students needing help both in mathematics and English should be together; those needing help only in mathematics should be together; and those needing help only in English should be together. Obviously, no formula or premise for this initial separation of "communities" will suffice for all settings. Faculty and staff members working with the program should adapt the suggestion for clusters to reflect their own situations.

No serious problems should result from instances in which a "community" is too small to enable the formation of even one group of the size range suggested in this paper, nor from the reality that some students will be with their intact groups for work on only one compensatory subject among several classes they are attending. Experience has indicated that the psychological support of groups such as those advocated should have positive impact on all of the student's classroom work. After being encouraged to mix and mingle quite freely, they should spend some time with virtually all others and sense the wealth of human resources available. Then, a process of building small groups should begin. Formation efforts should be guided by the "principle of least group size" derived by Thelen (1949). Since each

group is composed to move as a body through various areas of study and to maintain itself as an internally self-monitoring organism, it should have enough members (at least eight and no more than twelve) to fill the various roles needed to keep it together and to perform required tasks over an extended period of time. When groups are larger than twelve, the actual number of people participating tends to drop because of role duplication and the decision by some that they will not have time to state adequately their views or defend their stances if challenged. Conversely, when group size falls below eight, and if very demanding tasks are pursued for extended periods of time, the members are not likely to have adequate resources in their midst to do a creditable job. They may do well on quite limited tasks in limited periods of time, but they tend to make inferior decisions and demonstrate distorted interaction as they rush to complete their work and to avoid mounting tension and conflict (Pankowski and others, 1973).

Heterogeneity is another factor to consider in building the groups. Instead of joining students on the basis of shared interests, which is done typically in educational situations--and which leads almost inevitably to a homogeneity of resources--individuals should be grouped purposefully on the basis of their potential for contributing differently to group interaction (Benne and Sheats, 1948). At the same time, the participants should have some control over group composition through selecting fellow members themselves (Hall and Williams, 1966).

When their formation is complete, the groups should be given a series of focused exercises that create real problems to be solved by making use of the human resources in their midst. Rather than being told what to do in a group and what a group looks like when it is developing well, and then being told to become a group, the students should be given a chance to begin struggling toward group formation. After each exercise all the participants should share in examining thoughts and feelings generated by their own experiences. The training team should provide interpretive comments on what has taken place and its meaning for further development of the groups as organisms and their productive work as continuing learning units (Hall and Williams, 1970).

During most of the process of forming the groups and building skills, different group members should practice observing the group and giving it feedback on its maintenance and task work. This process gradually should

build within the group some internal feedback capabilities necessary to help maintain it as a reasonably healthy and productive organism while it undertakes different learning tasks throughout the year. Group members should begin to understand and support the concept of shared leadership, with the help of the observation and feedback process, which should indicate to them that any number of members in the group may at given times offer the group the leadership it needs for certain aspects of its work. The faculty members who are present during the student-training sequence should observe this process, but should not give feedback directly to the groups unless the groups insist.

As members work on skill-building tasks and begin to sense the richness of resources available, the pleasure of sharing insights, and the excitement of issue confrontations that result in creative resolutions, a sense of confidence in the ability of the group to handle forthcoming demanding tasks should begin to emerge and individuals should begin to talk about the group as a group. The term "we" will be heard increasingly. The group-building process cannot be completed quickly. It will require eight to twelve hours to be well launched, but it should not be considered complete in that time. The group will continue to develop its own identity and to establish a number of additional mutual "outside" activities which will tend to enhance the cohesiveness of the total organism (Bennis and Shepard, 1964).

Since most classrooms on the college campus are rather large, and the formation of appropriately small groups usually results in several groups being in any one classroom, the final work with the groups should be practice in the use of across-group information exchange mechanisms, including group-on-group observation and feedback techniques. An overall goal should be to keep all of the group members aware that while they have an immediate commitment to their own small groups, they also have a continuing commitment to all the other members in the total learning community in the class. They should understand that they can grow through gaining information which other groups have gathered and are ready to make available.

Student Training: Experiential Group-Building Sequence

This section describes in detail a group-composition and skill-building sequence which has been developed and refined in training sessions for over two hundred faculty and staff members from more than twenty-five community colleges and technical institutes in North Carolina.

While the emphasis in this paper is on compensatory education, the basic concepts and techniques presented have been adapted for use in other programs of these institutions. The training sessions, which prepare faculty and staff members to provide similar training for their students, are conducted on a year-round basis by members of the Graduate Program in Higher and Adult Education, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. For example, in a period of several months training sessions were conducted for the following: twenty instructors from various community colleges and technical institutes meeting at Fayetteville (N.C.) Technical Institute; twenty-eight instructors from various technical institutes and community colleges meeting at Mitchell Community College, Statesville, N.C.; thirty-two guidance and counseling and student personnel staff members from various community colleges and technical institutes, meeting in Greensboro, N.C.; and seventy-eight instructors and staff members of the Rockingham County (N.C.) Community College. Components of the proposed program have been adapted for use with hundreds of students. Specific referrals for more information about uses and outcomes can be made by the authors.

Approximate objectives for the suggested student training activities are given below, as well as a possible time sequence and follow-up comments which might be useful. We have attempted to avoid jargon, but the user of this material should decide on the semantics appropriate for his or her groups.

* * * * * *

Consultant or facilitator, speaking to an assembly of all students about to enter compensatory education, with all compensatory education faculty observing or serving as additional facilitators:

We are here to ask you to take part in a training session to form groups that we hope will stay together during your first term of work, and perhaps longer. You might find this situation unusual because you probably were not encouraged to become a member of a continuing group that might go from classroom to classroom in your past school work. Probably, you did not even get to know many of your classmates through most of the school year. This means that they were not very helpful to you in the different courses you took. Very often it probably seemed that people were in classrooms to compete with one another for the best grades, or at least for passing the course, instead of trying to help each other learn.

We want to begin developing groups that will become very close, groups whose members care about one another, support one another, and help one another when learning becomes difficult. We also hope that you will begin to see your group as a way of having a strong voice in courses you are taking and in this institution as a whole. In addition, some of the instructors who will work with you later in the year may use various activities and games that are designed for group learning. Other faculty may use the groups only for discussion of what is happening, what might be more helpful, and what has been understood or misunderstood in the course.

One thing we will try to do today is to develop trust between students and students, between students and faculty, and between faculty and students. As groups, you can have more voice in what is happening in the classroom only if your members trust one another and trust the instructor to deal honestly and consistently with you. In your past classroom experiences when people seemed to be competing for grades, and when the teacher seemed to have power over everyone's future, it probably was quite difficult for you to trust very much. Maybe you expect the same kind of experience now. We hope to change such expectations by showing you a difference in our way of helping people learn.

Probably some of you never have had a real opportunity to learn in groups, and others have found group work to be unsatisfactory. It is doubtful that your groups in the past were formed with any real concern for who should be together or were given any opportunity to develop trust and skills for working together before they were asked to handle difficult learning tasks. We hope you will give the groups we are about to build a chance to grow and to show their value for you as individuals. If, however, you find that you are not happy in the group you first join, you will have an opportunity later on to move to another group, without punishment or embarrassment.

Before we continue, do you have any questions or comments about what I've said? (Pause)

If there are no further questions or comments, I will say something about the different activities in which we are asking you to become involved for the next day or so. First, you will have a chance to meet everyone here

and to learn a bit about them in a manner that should not be embarrassing or difficult for anyone. After you have gotten to know the other students and have spent some time in building groups, you will find out more about the faculty members with whom you will work. You will create groups which have members with different backgrounds and ideas, and each of you will have some control over the building of your group. You will practice sharing things you know in a group and listening more carefully for better understanding and appreciation of what others are saying. You will learn how to work together in order to come to decisions that the total group can support and carry out, without forcing anyone to surrender his or her own beliefs and values. You'll also have a chance to learn how better to express your own new and creative ideas in a group and how to follow through on those ideas in order to learn more about any subject matter. Each group will have an opportunity to learn how to plan activities and test ideas before those ideas are accepted. Then, because we want you to be aware that some people in other groups can be helpful to you in different ways and can use your help in special ways, you will practice techniques for getting your groups together so that they can share ideas and questions about your particular subject areas more effectively.

I hope I have indicated to you that we are determined to help you improve your learning skills and be more satisfied with your progress through working with your fellow students and the faculty members in new ways. You will find that you will have more help in learning than you have ever had in the past, that you can become a helper for others in learning, and that you will have more involvement in what goes on in the classroom than ever before.

Getting Acquainted.

To begin, why don't you get to know something about each other. It takes a lot of time for people to really introduce themselves--to say something important about themselves in a group--and lots of people are anxious about having to talk in front of a number of people they haven't known before. So try introducing yourselves differently. You have been handed a five-by-eight-inch card. At the top of that card, in very large letters, please write your first name so that it can be seen across the room, and

put your last name in smaller letters right after it or under it. (Pause)

For the next few minutes, think about three or four of the most important things people in your cluster might need to know about you other than where you live and things you usually tell people. List or write in a few sentences the three or four most important things about you that you think they need to know. Then, under those, write two or three kinds of things that you think you need to know about the other people. Don't write anything that you wouldn't be willing to share. (Pause)

Now, take the pins we have given you and fasten the card to the front of your clothes and get up. Just walk around and read the cards of the people in your cluster, without talking to anyone. This way you can get around to many people in a hurry, getting a look at them and an idea of what is important to them here today. While you are walking around, try to find out which of these people seem to be quite different from you in some way that you think would be interesting and possibly helpful to you. Take a while to try and get a look at everyone's card if you can.* (Pause)

Group Formation.

For a minute or two, think about the people you saw who seem to be different from you in a way that you found most interesting. In a few minutes, I will ask you to go over and pair up with one of those persons and discuss with that person why you chose him or her. If that person goes to someone else or is chosen by someone else, try to get another individual you found to be different from you in an interesting way and discuss the reason for picking that person. While you are talking, the two of you might share more information about yourselves and why you wrote what you did on the cards.

Now, start pairing up and talking. Take about eight minutes. (Pause)

Now, each pair should scan the cluster of pairs you are in and choose another pair that seems to be somewhat different from yourselves in an important and interesting way, then try to join up with that other pair. If the

*If the number of students in a cluster is too small for the formation of more than one group of adequate size, the students should sit in a circle, tell each other what they have on their cards, and respond to questions about that information.

first pair you decided on has already been chosen, pick out a second pair that you find interesting. Think about your selection a moment and discuss it as a pair. When I signal you, please get with the other pair. When you join them, spend about ten minutes saying more about yourselves than is on your card, telling why you chose one another in the pairs and disclosing why one pair chose the other.

Select and join another pair at this time. (Pause)

All of you are in foursomes now (except where we have made some adjustments for an unequal number in a cluster). A final move will be to put foursomes together so that you will have groups of eight to work together for the rest of the school term. Each foursome should spend some time deciding on another foursome that you might prefer to be with, and a second choice. When I ask you to do so, please try to join with the other foursome, or an alternate foursome, that seems to have differences from yourselves that you think are important and interesting. When you get together with the other foursome, sit down in a circle, far enough away from other groups to avoid disturbing noise. Spend about fifteen minutes telling about yourselves as individuals, why you got together as twosomes and foursomes, and then why one foursome decided to choose the other foursome.

All right, form your groups of eight. (Pause)

Listening - Paraphrasing Exercise.

In new groups, people often are too anxious about how they will get along with the others to listen very carefully to what others are saying. We think it would be helpful to spend some time practicing listening to one another carefully and checking out whether or not you are understanding what the other person is saying. For the next twenty minutes, in each group spend some time talking about any concerns that you have about what has taken place thus far and what might happen in the rest of our time together here or in classroom work together. We would like you to try something called "paraphrasing." After a person has talked, the next person who wants to talk must first repeat back to the satisfaction of the previous talker the general ideas, opinions, or views stated by that person. Those of us who are working with the groups will be listening to each group and will try to determine what questions we might answer or comments we might

make at the conclusion which will put people more at ease about what is taking place.

Please begin your discussion now of questions, concerns, or just general comments that you have to make about what has taken place thus far and what might happen. Don't forget to repeat what the previous speaker was saying before you speak. (Pause)

There is little reason to form groups if the groups won't be able to do a better job than any one member could do by himself or herself. Groups cannot perform better than individuals if the various group members do not get a chance to challenge or add to what is being discussed. Information should come from different viewpoints and ideas brought before the group. In discussions and decision making, very often one or two people dominate a group so much that some members don't get a chance to influence the group and then they are not happy with the work of the group. Groups that act only on the basis of majority vote also are not likely to have the continuing support of all members for very long.

Consensus Decision-Making Exercise.

One very effective way of making certain that various members get to contribute to the work of the group and to arrive at decisions or final answers that are likely to be supported by the group as a whole is the method of consensus. In trying to reach a decision by consensus, the group is forced to listen to every member and to avoid making its final decision until it is clear that all members are willing to support it even though some would have preferred a different decision. This approach also enables group members to learn more about each person's viewpoints and backgrounds and about how to use the various people in the group to help themselves or the group as a whole.

So your next activity will be to try a consensus decision-making task, one which we hope you will find enjoyable. Please keep in mind that this task and all the others that will take place during this training session have nothing to do with any sort of evaluation of you for your schoolwork. (Pause)

We are handing out sheets that have instructions for a task to be done by each individual, without talking to other group members. Take about ten

minutes to do this. Then we will tell you about the next step. (Pause)

(Participant Handout #1 is given to group members and Facilitator Instructions #1 are given to facilitators.)

Participant Handout #1: What's Important to Workers?

Instructions: Several years before the mid-1970s recession, workers in businesses and industrial plants in various parts of the United States were interviewed concerning those things which contributed to their morale on the job. Below is a list of ten items which each employee who was interviewed was asked to arrange in what he or she considered to be their order of importance. Your task is to rank these ten items in the same order of importance as did the sample of American workers in this study. Place the number 1 by the item that you think was ranked as most important; place the number 2 by the second most important; and so on through the number 10, which is your estimate of the least important of the ten items.

_____ Feeling "in" on things
_____ Full appreciation of work done
_____ Good wages
_____ Good working conditions
_____ Interesting work
_____ Job security
_____ Personal loyalty to workers
_____ Promotion and growth in company
_____ Sympathetic help on personal problems
_____ Tactful disciplining

Facilitator Instructions #1

Correct ranking for consensus exercise (to be read to each group after they have reached consensus):

2 Feeling "in" on things
1 Full appreciation of work done
5 Good wages
9 Good working conditions
6 Interesting work
4 Job security
8 Personal loyalty to workers

Facilitator Instructions #1 - Continued

7 Promotion and growth in company
3 Sympathetic help on personal problems
10 Tactful disciplining

Now that you have completed your sheets, your task is to work as a group and come to a group consensus on the correct ranking of the items on your sheet. A list of suggestions for reaching a group consensus is being distributed.

(Participant Handout #2 is given to group members.)

Please read it before you begin work as a group. Try to complete the consensus in no more than forty-five minutes. One member of each group will be asked to keep a record of the group's decisions. Members should not change or strike through their own answers, even though the group chooses a different answer. Keep in mind that the goal is not so much that your group get close to the best answer, but that you get everyone in the group involved and do the best you can to use the members you have. The members will be better equipped for some tasks than for others. The important thing is that you learn to listen carefully to one another, try to understand one another, and cooperate in coming to the best possible answer for the total group. At the conclusion of each group's work, we will give the correct answers and help you determine how well your group used its members in coming to a decision. Any questions or comments? (Pause)

Participant Handout #2: How to Reach Consensus

1. Members should avoid arguing in order to win as individuals. What is "right" is the best collective judgment of the group as a whole.
2. Conflict on ideas, solutions, predictions, and so on should be viewed as helping rather than hindering the process of seeking consensus.
3. Problems are solved best when individual group members accept responsibility for both hearing and being heard, so that everyone is included in what is decided.
4. Tension-reducing behaviors can be useful so long as meaningful conflict is not "smoothed over" without giving people a hearing.
5. Each member has the responsibility to think about the processes through

which work gets done and to initiate discussions of process when the work is becoming ineffective.

6. The best results flow from a blending of information, logic, and emotion. Value judgments about what is best include members' feelings about the information and the process of decision making.

"Helpful Things" Exercise.

Now we will hand out sheets that list different things people do which are helpful or crucial to groups. Think back over the work of your group and try to decide which people did some of the helpful things for your group. After you have read these sheets and thought about the behaviors in your group, spend some time in each group discussing helpful things which were done and possibly helpful things which were not done. Please take about fifteen minutes to read the sheets and decide which persons did which things, and then about twenty minutes talking about this in your group. (Pause)

(Participant Handout #3 is given to group members.)

Participant Handout #3: Helpful Things People Do in Groups, or Roles They Take

Initiator--gets the discussion under way, helps the group organize itself, keeps the group moving steadily toward its goal.

Contributor--offers facts, opinions, and experiences which might aid the group in solving the problem.

Clarifier--raises questions about contributions that are unclear, asks for definitions of vague or confusing terms, requests additional information.

Summarizer--points out the relationships between contributions, summarizes where the group stands on an issue (then checks with the group to make sure he is accurate).

Evaluator--shows the group how well they are moving toward accomplishing their goal, points out problems they are having in working together.

Recorder--keeps a record of the main points of the discussion, writes down the group product if it is to be submitted to the teacher, helps refresh the group's memory about what has been covered in a discussion.

Encourager--tries to get all members of the group to contribute by showing interest in what they say, praising their contributions, being friendly.

Harmonizer--helps to relieve tension and settle disputes between other members, helps the group work out its disagreements, suggests compromises.

In the consensus task, you worked to get the group to come to a total decision because you were trying to arrive at a particular answer. Sometimes there is not one best answer for a task that a group is working on. So it becomes important for group members to be aware of various different possible answers, viewpoints, or opinions about a certain problem, activity, or event.

Viewpoint Exploration Exercise.

We'd like you to try a method which will allow you to find out about different possible viewpoints and where all of your group members stand on an issue or problem, with no need to come to one final answer. When people learn about different possibilities for looking at a certain topic, they very often are better able to understand why they feel and think as they do about that topic and are better able to discuss their reasons for feeling and thinking that way. We are going to give you a list of possible topics. Choose one to discuss in each group. Take about forty minutes to discuss it, and at the end we will ask each group to report what seemed to be the main differences in viewpoints about the topic. We also will ask each group to look back over the sheet that describes the different things people do to help groups in their work and later ask you to discuss the helpful things members did for your group. (Pause)

(Participant Handout #4 is given to group members.)
Participant Handout #4: Viewpoint Exploration Exercise
Possible issues for discussion:

"Some authorities think that people who enroll for more education or training after being in the adult world and away from the classroom for several years make better students. Does this seem true? If so, why? If not, why? If so, should all students be encouraged to take a break from their educational plans while in their teens?"

--or--

"With the world changing so rapidly, should people try to plan for their lives as much as twenty years ahead? If so, why and how? If not, why?"

--or--

"Is it good or bad for the world to be changing as rapidly as it is, and will most Americans be better off because of the rapid changes we are seeing today?"

Now, each group should have someone give us a brief statement about what took place in the group. (Pause)

Take about ten minutes to talk in each group about the helpful things members did during the discussion. (Pause)

Brainstorming Exercise.

In the last two group discussions, we asked that you use information and opinions that your group members already had in order to think logically about some problems. You were asked to use your best judgment and to avoid inventing information, daydreaming, or just free-wheeling on ideas. Sometimes, in order to learn, people need to call upon their imaginations and to think creatively. They need to think in new ways and view things differently. Because groups often are not able to do this very well, we would like you to spend some time practicing skills that will help you be creative and free-wheeling at certain times when the creation of new ideas would be useful for learning in the group. Keep in mind that creative thinking is most effective and useful when it is applied to problems for which there is not enough information available to allow you to find several possible answers.

In stimulating creative thinking, two rules are very important. First, everyone should offer every idea he or she has as soon as it occurs, without stopping to consider whether or not it will sound stupid or useless. An unusual idea may sound "far out" but be extremely helpful, or it may cause other group members to think of better and more useful ideas. Also, too often in groups when one person offers an unusual idea, everyone else tries to think of reasons it won't work. This usually makes group members less willing to risk their thinking in the group until they believe the idea is safe and they can give clear statements to support it. So the second rule is to avoid criticizing. In becoming more creative as individuals and group members, you must be more willing to share your own daydreams and imaginations, without worrying about being punished or criticized for strange or "far out" ideas. The goal is to get out as many ideas as possible as fast as you can without stopping to discuss whether or not each idea makes sense. After a period of time in listing ideas, the group can evaluate and decide which several ideas seem most useful and worthy of further discussion.

In order to practice and better understand these rules for creative thinking, we'd like you to try "brainstorming" for a creative answer to one of the problems on a list of topics we are about to give you. Each is a topic concerned with the future, just for practice. (Pause)

(Facilitator Instructions #2 are referred to by the facilitators while one facilitator presents the exercise to the assembled groups.)

Facilitator Instructions #2: Brainstorming*

Purposes

1. To teach students to respect and build on their own and others' creative abilities.
2. To encourage the experimental frame of mind necessary for effective problem solving.
3. To increase the students' involvement in learning.

Procedure

1. Start the practice session. Ask the groups to list as many ideas as they can for solving a specific problem chosen by the facilitator.
2. After five minutes stop the listing, and have the groups quickly count and share the number of items they recorded.
3. Ask these questions of the groups:
   Did everyone get a chance to put in his ideas?
   Were you able to avoid criticizing others' contributions?
4. After the practice session, ask the groups to choose one of several relevant issues or problems to brainstorm.
5. Give the groups ten minutes to record their ideas.
6. Ask each group to choose its two most important ideas to be shared with the entire community.
7. Post the lists so that everyone can see how many ideas emerged in a short time.

Possible Topics

"Considering the unexpected things which are happening in the world today, what jobs will be changed or eliminated by the year 1990?"

--or--

*Adapted from an exercise developed by the National Training Laboratories Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

"What new kinds of jobs might be created between this year and the year 1990?"

--or--

"What should life be like for the people in your group in the year 1990? Describe homes, work conditions, community, etc."

As you could see, it is important to get out ideas as fast as you have them and get as many as possible before the whole group so they can build on them. Also, I hope you found that brainstorming in a group is enjoyable.

You probably thought that a number of the ideas might be effective for dealing with the problem that was chosen. Even though this technique is very useful in stimulating creative thinking, sometimes a few members of the group do not say anything because they are still afraid of sounding stupid and of being laughed at. As a result, they are not fully involved in the creative thinking situation and are not as likely to be interested in the ideas that the group develops. In addition, the number of possible ideas is likely to be less and of lower quality because of the failure of some to participate.

Nominal Group Process Exercise.

To overcome this problem there is another approach called "nominal group process," which gets some ideas from all members into the open for the group to discuss, without having people immediately discuss the ideas. So that you can practice this method now, we will give you another problem concerning your future to work on and ask that you try to come up with solutions, being as creative as possible. The facilitators will give you instructions for this work. (Pause)

(Facilitator Instructions #3 are referred to by the facilitators.)

Facilitator Instructions #3: "Nominal Group" Process*

Purposes

1. To stimulate individual divergent thinking, creative problem solving, and exploration of the individual's fantasy world for its

*Adapted from a process developed by Andre Delbecq and Andrew Van de Ven.

learning potential.

2. To reduce the possibility of premature evaluation of ideas by temporarily ruling out interpersonal verbal and nonverbal communication during the ideation period.
3. To seek a wide variety and large number of ideas to be considered by a total group.
4. To serve as a prelude to the application of group processes of logical evaluation and decision making through full interaction.

Procedure

1. Members of the small group are asked to work individually on a problem that lends itself to creative thinking. It should be a very specific problem for which no solution is available currently but for which a specific solution might be found. Members are given about ten minutes to "free wheel" and fantasize, briefly describing two or three ideas on paper, but not putting their names on the paper. There should be no talking.
2. Members then "return" to the group, in a circle, and their lists of ideas are randomly distributed around the group.
3. Each member reads the ideas of another member. Care is taken not to attempt to identify the writer, unless an item isn't clear. No evaluation is allowed until all ideas have been read and written on a chalkboard or newsprint for all members to consider.
4. Extensive discussion and initial evaluation by the group, for about thirty minutes or more, is followed by a decision on one or more of the ideas as most promising or acceptable. More intensive evaluation probably will be necessary before a group is ready to give full or consensual support to an idea.

Possible Topics

"What are the three most important things you could do to make certain that you will be qualified for more than one type of job by the year 1990? Be specific. Do not just list something as general as 'Get more education.'"

--or--

Any of the possible topics for brainstorming which the group has not discussed.

The nominal process exercise gets people to put their ideas before the group with less open risk than in brainstorming. The group gets many ideas, and it probably gets more involvement of all members and more interest in solving the problem. (Pause)

Force Field Analysis Exercise.

Sometimes groups don't work well because they have found no satisfactory way of organizing their thinking to come out with one or several possible answers to issues or problems they are working on and suggestions for things they need to learn. One very helpful way to organize the thinking of a group in order to better understand a possible action, idea, or event that is about to take place or has taken place is an approach called "force field analysis." That's a long name for a very simple process, which helps a group think the way an individual very often thinks in order to decide what he needs to know or do about some things he is interested in.

An example is the way a person considers buying a car. An individual might make a mental list or actually put on a sheet of paper the reasons for buying and the reasons for not buying the car. In other words, he would list the forces for and the forces against buying the car. Probably he would then try to decide how to reduce or eliminate the reasons for not buying the car. If he could reduce those, he probably would buy. Sometimes, the person would need to learn more about some of the forces for and against the purchase before he actually could make a decision.

Determining the important forces for and against a certain idea, plan, event, or procedure helps one decide what needs to be studied before intelligent answers can be found or action can be taken. In order to illustrate how this method works, we will ask you to take one of the ideas that your group came up with in the nominal group process. You will try to determine the forces for and against that idea's working and how you might go about reducing the forces that are moving against the idea. (Example: Problem situation: "What are the three most important things you could do to make certain that you will be qualified for more than one type of job by the year 1990?" Goal, or proposed solution [one of three] : To complete training for a second type of job through evening courses at a community college while working on a basic job during the daytime. One force for : Evening training

is available at community colleges. One force against : Maintaining a daytime job and evening studies might harm one's health. This listing of forces would be continued.) Once you have practiced, we will talk about some of the ways it can be used in learning about other topics and various subjects that you will study. Now, the facilitators will help you practice this technique. (Pause)

(Facilitator Instructions #4 are referred to by the facilitators.)

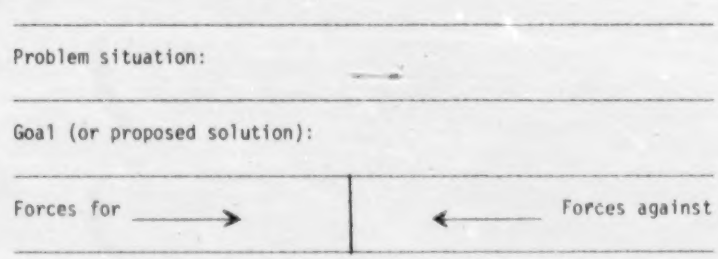
Facilitator Instructions #4: Force Field Analysis*

Purpose

To move from creative thinking to action and to learn to become more effective problem solvers, through application of logical processes and utilization of all available data.

Procedure

1. Introduce the basic process and try a practice period, focusing on an idea or solution from the previous exercise. State both the goal and the problem situation to which it relates.
2. Draw this form on the board:



3. Explain the diagram and ask the group members to name the forces which go in either column. You might explain the "forces against" as those which hamper the solution of the problem and the "forces for" as those which would lessen or remove the problem.
4. Discuss both lists with the members. Have them determine which "forces for" can be strengthened and which "forces against" can be

*Adapted from an exercise developed by the National Training Laboratories Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

decreased. Circle those forces which seem to be the most important and those which the group thinks could be researched and discussed in more depth.

5. If time permits, take a group break and ask one or two members to research each important force (consulting material and human resources) and to bring findings back to the next group session to share with the group.
6. For each "force against" you have circled, list and give evidence of possible responses or action steps (behaviors) which might reduce the effect of the force or eliminate it completely. The groups should have a chance later to describe which are the most appropriate. List and give evidence of as many responses or action steps as possible which would increase the effect of each "force for."
7. Review the final list of response or action steps and discuss the desired goal in light of the new body of information.
8. Have the groups choose a topic and conduct their own force field analysis.

Now I am going to give you several topics. Choose one topic in each group to use in another force field analysis so that you can see how this method can be used as the beginning of your learning about some topic in a regular classroom. Here are the topics:

(1) Can the U.S. solve its energy problems by the year 2000?

(2) Can a person from a poor family become president of the U.S. by the year 2000?

(3) Will a person be able to earn over $10,000 a year without a college education ten years from now?

(4) Will a person be able to live successfully in the U.S. ten years from now without knowing a lot about mathematics?

Once you have picked a topic, look at the forces on each side and decide what and how to learn about all the forces so as to strengthen the forces for and reduce or even eliminate the forces against the idea. Or, you might choose, in the case of some of the issues or topics, to reduce the forces driving in favor of the possibility and strengthen the forces against it. After this exercise is finished, we will ask you to practice a technique for

sharing across groups called "fishbowl" and "empty chair."

But first, please pick a topic, get into your groups, and do the force field analysis. (Pause)

Fishbowl/Cross-Group Exercise.

Now that each group has come up with a force field, we're going to have one group listen to another group discuss its analysis. The talking group, those in the "fishbowl," will provide an empty chair for anyone from the listening group to come in and add additional information or challenge something that is being said about the items in the force field. Then the groups will change places. The group that has been observed in the "fishbowl" will be a listening group and will have a chance to challenge or discuss the other group's work on its force field. We will give you complete instructions on this as we go along and answer any questions about what you are to do. (Pause)

(Facilitator Instructions #5 are referred to by the facilitators.)

Facilitator Instructions #5: "Fishbowl"*

Purposes

1. To provide a means of sharing information across groups.
2. To provide for periodic feedback on process to each group.

Procedure

1. Have one group get in a circle inside a larger circle composed of members of another group. The inside circle should have one extra chair that is empty.
2. The inner group should discuss its topic while the outside group observes and remains quiet.
3. Any member of the outside group who wants to contribute information or raise questions about the content of the discussion can do so by coming to the empty chair in the inner circle, and leaving as soon as the point is made, or question raised.
4. About every fifteen minutes, the inner group's discussion should be suspended while the outer group members give them feedback on

*Adapted from an exercise developed by the National Training Laboratories Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

their process. The outer members may use the handout on "Helpful Things People Do in Groups" to guide their observations and comments. They also may comment on degree of participation, emergence of leadership, degree of acceptance and use of member contributions, and whether there appears to be careful listening in the group. Negative comment about any individual should be avoided. The inner group may raise questions after the feedback period and then return to their discussion.

5. After no more than one hour of discussion and feedback, there should be a break. Upon returning, the groups should switch places and the former inner group should become outer observers, while the former outer group becomes an inner group discussing its topic. The discussion/empty chair/periodic feedback process then should be repeated.

Review and Question Period.

Let us look back over the things we have done together during this training session, so that you will have more understanding of what you might use as you move through the classrooms in groups. After that, you will meet as groups with the various faculty members who are going to be working with you in the coming year. The object of that meeting will be to get to know the faculty members better and to find out if you can understand and trust one another better than perhaps you have in faculty-student relationships in the past.

In summary, you began by introducing yourselves in a way that was different from what is usually done in order to stay safe and not take too many risks. You did this as part of a group-building process that should give you a better understanding of different ways in which you might help and learn from one another and begin developing trust and skills in working together as a group. You tried reaching a decision by using available information and viewpoints in the consensus manner, and then discussing an issue to determine what the various viewpoints and feelings about the issue might be within the group. You tried two techniques for getting people to think more creatively and to share their ideas with the group, about any topic or issue for which there are no answers, or at least no answers that are considered to be very good. Then you looked at a way of organizing a group's thinking to determine what needs to be learned or what action needs to be taken about an event, topic, possible plan, or idea. You tried sharing group work and learning

with other groups so that you can all be part of a total learning community and help one another within groups and across groups.

Spend a few minutes, if you will, finding out what comments or questions people have about what is taking place and determining if there are other things we need to do before going on to the meetings with the various faculty members. What questions do you want to have answered? What comments do you have about what we've been doing? (Pause)

Faculty/Group Discussions.

Now, we want all the faculty members who are going to be working with you to sit together in the center of the room. Arrange your groups in a half circle so that you can see all the instructors. The faculty members will introduce themselves and tell you what they teach, something about their courses, and something about themselves that you usually would not find out about them in regular courses. As they talk, be thinking about what they have had to say. Then we'll ask the groups to meet and decide what questions they might need to ask each member or statements they might need to make to him or her. The faculty members will rotate around to each group individually to find out whether they need to discuss things further with each group. (Pause)

If there are no questions or comments, I'll ask the faculty members now to start telling you who they are, more about themselves, and something about the courses they plan to teach. (Pause)

Within the next few days, we will begin our class work sessions, but we hope they will be different, more helpful, and more enjoyable than any you have had in the past. They will give you a chance to be very active in your own learning and decisions about how you might learn. Your groups, we hope, will support each individual member and will keep close watch on the problems of each member in order to find out whether anyone needs help and how to get that help early enough to make certain that everyone succeeds.

As we said before, you will move through your class work in each preparatory subject as a total group. Whenever possible, the instructor will involve your groups in different exercises, games, and other activities that will help you undertake problems of learning as a group and learn more

during the class periods and after class hours. You will hear more about this later from the different faculty members in meetings with your groups after class sessions begin. We do not expect the groups to be able to work extremely well from the very first, but we will be meeting with you frequently to help you deal with problems, not only in learning, but in working with one another.

Suggested Schedule for Student Training Sequence
(Total time: 9-10 and 1/2 hours)

Minutes	
10	Introduction
10	Participants complete cards on important things about themselves.
10-20	Participants mix and mingle while reading information on the cards.
5-10	Participants pick partners and share.
10	Twosomes form foursomes and share.
15	Foursomes form groups of eight and share.
20	Groups discuss present reactions and concerns, while practicing paraphrasing.
10	Participants complete individual consensus sheets.
30-45	Groups seek consensus.
15	Facilitator scores consensus results and discusses the process.
35	Participants read handouts on "Helpful Things" and discuss behaviors in their groups.
40	Groups discuss topic needing no decision.
5-15	Group representatives present statements about the work of their groups.
10	Groups discuss helpful things done by members.
45	Groups practice brainstorming.
10	Individual members write ideas for nominal group process.
30	Groups select and discuss best ideas.
60	Groups practice force field analyses.
100-120	Groups are paired to do fishbowl exercise.
10	Questions and comments from groups.
90-120	Groups meet faculty members.

* * * * *

Remainder of the Program

When groups arrive for their first class, the instructor again should review basic information about the course, outline his proposed learning objectives, and suggest procedures. He should ask students then to discuss both content and procedure. Each group should plan to meet briefly at the end of the first or second class to schedule regular after-class meetings and establish appropriate within-group or across-group helping relationships to offer individual group members. To discuss material and progress in each class, all groups should meet after class no less than two hours weekly for each compensatory subject.

Although shared leadership should be emphasized, some group members inevitably will have more influence than others. Each group should select a member to be responsible for scheduling meetings--the one chosen is likely to be an influential member. Faculty should not meet with the groups unless asked to do so. The instructors should follow a similar schedule, meeting briefly each week to discuss the performance of each group and to exchange views on the most effective means of helping them. This session should include all faculty members who are working with the compensatory education groups.

After every three hours of class, groups should give faculty members a report on their overall view of the course and how they are progressing. A representative from the coordinating office (student personnel or counseling and guidance) should meet with each group and instructor at least after every six hours of classroom work during their regular get-togethers. All groups should meet semi-weekly in a total community to share their accomplishments and anticipate needs for help from other groups.

The following summarizes the schedule of after-class group meetings suggested: (1) students alone in their own groups, weekly for at least two hours; (2) students' groups together in their original community subject area community clusters; (3) compensatory instructors, weekly as a group or groups; and (4) community clusters of students' groups with appropriate faculty and a representative from the program coordinating office, at least after every six hours of classroom sessions.

The coordinating representative periodically should remind groups that members who are not happy with their groups may have an appointment to discuss possible transfer to another group. Transfer should be negotiated with the preferred group, if transfer appears necessary. That group should assign at least one member to meet with the prospective new member and brief him on what the group has been doing. All members of the preferred group should be free to offer information through their contact person. The prospective member should not have to be accepted by the preferred group, but that group must give direct and substantial reasons for not accepting him or her. Their objections clearly should be based on incompatability of the arrangement and should be supported by evidence beyond just the opinion of one or two members.

At midterm and at least one week before the end of regular classes, each group should determine which of its members need additional help on various subjects and should set up helping relationships within or across groups to make certain that adequate assessments and assistance are provided. The helpers should seek faculty aid if they are unable to provide adequate assistance. This would be especially important at the midterm point or just before the end of the semester if any members of the group are likely to fail any course and any time a member is thought to be considering dropping out of the program. Members should discuss ways of making available all possible legitimate aid for improving learning or in making the most appropriate decision about remaining in the program. Members should not try to coerce a fellow group member into remaining in the program, but should be encouraged to provide whatever assistance and resources that might enable the student to find the program more helpful or less stressful.

The Experiential Approach

Whether we call it the "small group approach," "experience-based learning," or the "laboratory method of learning," our purpose is to get the group members confront a problem by examining all sides of the issue and then generating alternative solutions. We want participants to experience, as directly as possible, the dimensions of the problem and various modes of responding to it.

In learning to use small groups as an instructional strategy, faculty members and students should be given a chance to experiment with various ways of converting the presentation of "static" information into a potentially dynamic learning situation. For example, even though a mathematics formula might be given directly to students, the principle would more likely become real and useful to them as they struggle with its true nature and the ramifications of applying it. In a small group setting they could generate and evaluate numerous alternatives to its application with the use of both logical and creative thinking.

In the social sciences, an authority might give his interpretation of a situation or his suggestions for response to a situation, or the history of certain organizational behavior could be outlined. Then the members of a small group could take such a sample of relatively lifeless information and make it more relevant to their own lives, more exciting, and more worth their attention by using the "brainstorming" exercise. Or they might take a more logical tack, outlining reasons why the organization behaved in such a way through a period of its history.

Any of the skill-building exercises described in the student-training sequence can be applied in the classroom by incorporating specific material from a discipline. The experience-based approach can also employ role play, simulations, and learning games. However, these techniques probably would not be effective learning tools unless an environment of competence, motivation, and trust had been created through open, free-flowing interaction in the learning group. Students who have devoted some effort to learning how to offer themselves and to utilize others as helping resources, who appreciate and value one another's differences, and who cooperate rather than compete on a variety of levels and learning tasks are likely to be able to utilize these techniques more effectively. In the training sessions, whenever time permits, both faculty and students should be exposed to the elementary principles underlying role playing, simulation, and learning games within the context of an intact group setting.

Faculty members cannot become very skillful in the use of small group learning during the brief training period we have described. Within such a limited period, however, they can be introduced to the possibilities and

they can continue to gain skill while they conduct their regularly scheduled classes. Those who gain confidence in the wisdom and internal self-corrective mechanisms of a purposeful small group begin to realize that expertise on their part is not crucial. Students and faculty members can learn together how to use the small group approach with increasing effectiveness and reward for all. The sense of involvment and personal responsibility is very likely to be heightened by the realization that faculty members are not trying to control the situation through their own expertise.

Not being an expert in using the small group approach is, at one level, no different from being a poor lecturer--and probably every beginning faculty member and a significant portion of veteran faculty members lack expertise as speakers. At another level, however, a great difference emerges: although instructors rarely get much direct help from students in perfecting their lectures, they can and must involve students heavily in improving the small group approach in the classroom. The effectiveness of these methods depends primarily on the students; they must trust the faculty member to let them participate in the process and assume responsibility for it, without the implication that he has fully predetermined outcomes in mind. And, of course, those persons who provide the original training in the use of small groups should be available as consultants in a classroom, upon request by the instructor.

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